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1	Infertility Diagnosis has a Significant Impact on the Developing Blastocyst's
2	Transcriptome
3	
4	Running title: Infertility diagnosis impacts blastocyst transcriptome
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#### 29 Abstract

30 Infertility is a disease that affects 1 out of 6 reproductive-age couples. The causes are diverse 31 including, but not limited to, polycystic ovaries (PCO), male factor (MF), and when all sources 32 have been ruled out, the couple is defined as having unexplained infertility. While each etiology 33 is distinct, they are all typically associated with lower implantation potential and poorer 34 pregnancy outcomes. The aim of this study was to characterize the global transcriptome of 35 human blastocysts, from patients presenting with specific infertility etiologies, to elucidate novel 36 biological pathways that may influence downstream implantation. Surplus, cryopreserved, day 37 5 blastocysts of transferrable quality were donated with Institutional Review Board (IRB) 38 approval and patient consent for transcriptome microarray analysis. The human blastocyst 39 transcriptome contained 13,136 annotated genes with the most significant alteration observed 40 for blastocysts derived from infertile PCO patients. 869 genes were differentially expressed in 41 PCO blastocysts, 348 in MF blastocysts, and 473 in blastocysts from unexplained etiology 42 compared to fertile, donor controls (P<0.05; >2-fold). Validation utilizing real-time quantitative 43 PCR was performed on genes belonging to enriched pathways including: BCL2L10, HSPA1A, 44 HSPA1B, ATF3, FGF9, LEFTY1, LEFTY2, GDF15, INHBA, AJAP1, CDH9, and LAMA4 45 (P<0.05; >2-fold). Functional annotation of biological and molecular processes revealed both 46 similarities, as well as differences, across the infertility groups. All etiologies displayed 47 transcriptome alterations in signal transducer activity, receptor binding, reproduction, cell adhesion, and response to stimulus. However, blastocysts from PCO patients were also 48 49 enriched for apoptosis while MF blastocysts displayed enrichment for cancer processes. 50 Blastocysts from couples with unexplained infertility were enriched for pathways related to 51 various disease states which included mTOR and adipocytokine signaling. In conclusion, 52 underlying patient infertility diagnosis is reflected in the blastocyst transcriptome, which may 53 then impact developmental competence and implantation outcomes. Ongoing research could

54	result in the development of new laboratory or clinical therapies, improving patient diagnosis						
55	and management.						
56							
57	Keywords:	polycystic ovaries, male factor, unexplained Infertility, transcriptome, gene					
58	expression						
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80 Introduction

The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that 1 out of 6 couples struggle with infertility and the origins are equally distributed between male and female. There are many different causes of infertility including, among others, polycystic ovaries (PCO) and male factor (MF). Infertility can be the result of a variety of problems ranging from genetic to hormonal and even environmental. When all known sources have been ruled out, the couple is defined as idiopathic or unexplained.

87 Polycystic ovarian syndrome (PCOS) is the most common endocrine disorder in women 88 of reproductive age and a major cause of female factor infertility (Sirmans and Pate, 2013). It is 89 the result of hormonal imbalances, typically excess androgen production, which lead to rare or 90 irregular ovulation (Krishnan and Muthusami, 2017). Unlike PCOS, women diagnosed with 91 polycystic ovaries (PCO) do not have a metabolic condition but have ovaries with abnormally 92 high follicle counts and can still possess hormonal imbalances. PCO is far more common than 93 PCOS, affecting anywhere from 20-30% of the population and the causes are largely unknown 94 (Koivunen et al., 1999). PCO patients are often infertile due to anovulation, thereby requiring 95 assisted reproductive technologies (ART) to conceive. High miscarriage rates are associated 96 with this infertility phenotype, as well as decreased fertilization after IVF, suggesting poorer 97 quality oocytes and embryos (Hardy et al., 1995).

Male factor infertility, which is almost always defined as abnormal semen analysis based on WHO guidelines, is solely responsible for 20-30% of human infertility and is a contributing factor in half of all couples presenting for ART (Agarwal et al. , 2015). Problems with sperm production can originate from many different factors including hormonal, environmental, and even on a physical level within the testicle, causing problems with the seminiferous tubules. These tubules contain the Sertoli cells that act as nourishment for developing germ cells and are the location for spermatogenesis. Poor semen parameters have been shown to result in delayed and failed fertilization, as well as compromised embryo development and quality (Janny
and Menezo, 1994, Ron-el et al., 1991).

107 Unexplained infertility is diagnosed in about 15-30% of infertile couples and is difficult to 108 treat due to the unknown underlying etiology (Practice Committee of the American Society for Reproductive, 2006). It is defined as the inability to conceive after 12 months of regular. 109 110 unprotected intercourse and when all recommended fertility assessments fail to reveal any 111 anomaly (Quaas and Dokras, 2008). Patients can present with varying infertility histories 112 including multiple IVF failures, poor embryo development, as well as lengthy periods of infertility. 113 A retrospective review of 45 studies found that couples with this diagnosis have, on average, a 114 1-4% chance of achieving pregnancy during any given menstrual cycle without utilizing ART 115 (Guzick et al., 1998). Nevertheless, 40-60% will spontaneously conceive within 3 years 116 (depending on the female partner's age) and this rate can increase to as high as 75% with the 117 use of ART (Daniela Galliano, 2015). ART techniques can also potentially help further address 118 the cause of infertility in these patients (i.e. low fertilization rates, embryo fragmentation, 119 abnormal oocytes, etc.) as well as improve time to conception.

120 A fertilized oocyte must not only facilitate the syngamy of the male and female genomic 121 contributions but also undergo a series of cellular divisions before embryonic genome activation 122 is initiated (Fragouli et al., 2013). Both the timing of the activation, as well as the synchrony of 123 genes activated, must be accurately controlled to produce a blastocyst stage embryo that is 124 viable and developmentally competent for implantation to occur (Latham and Schultz, 2001). In 125 the mouse model, studies have observed two waves of embryonic gene transcription, the first 126 corresponding to zygotic genome activation which occurs at the 1-2 cell stage, and the second 127 occurring during the morula-to-blastocyst transition (Hamatani et al., 2004a). While these 128 transcriptional events are similar in the human embryo, the timing is different with the zygotic 129 genome activation occurring at the 4-8 cell stage (Niakan et al., 2012). Any irregularities during 130 this critical time can lead to embryos that are incompetent and unable to implant.

131 The interactions between the blastocyst and the uterus that result in successful 132 implantation are directed by an equally complex molecular dialogue (Fitzgerald et al., 2008). 133 Uterine receptivity has been extensively studied on all molecular levels, including the cross-talk 134 between the embryo and endometrium which is quite extensive and results in an environment ideal for embryo adhesion and placentation (Miravet-Valenciano et al., 2015). It has also been 135 136 shown that viable mouse embryos have a specific gene expression profile that favors uterine 137 attachment and invasion of the maternal endometrium. Chaen et al. found that ovarian 138 estrogen indirectly coordinates mouse blastocyst adhesion through integrin activation in the 139 blastocyst (Chaen et al., 2012). Additionally, a mammalian model for blastocyst activity has 140 shown that specific molecular signaling directs either blastocyst activation or dormancy, 141 affecting implantation competency (Hamatani et al., 2004b). Our lab has previously reported 142 that differential mouse trophectoderm gene expression following embryo biopsy is associated 143 with murine blastocyst implantation success. Specifically, higher gene expression of B3gnt5, 144 Cdx2, Eomes, and Wnt3a were predictive of sustained implantation. In contrast, decreased 145 gene expression of Eomes and Wnt3a were associated with absorption or pregnancy loss and 146 decreased gene expression of B3gnt4 and Cdx2 were observed with negative outcomes (Parks 147 et al., 2011).

148 There is limited knowledge of the human preimplantation embryo transcriptome and how 149 it correlates to pregnancy outcomes. Jones et al. examined the transcriptome of human 150 trophectoderm biopsies and identified more than 7000 transcripts expressed exclusively in 151 viable blastocysts (Jones et al., 2008). A more recent study performed single-cell RNA 152 sequencing on both human and mouse preimplantation embryos to determine a dataset of 153 genes that are important for pluripotency (Blakeley et al., 2015). Ongoing transcriptome 154 analysis in our lab revealed differential gene expression from blastocysts obtained from PCO 155 women compared with donor controls. Over 800 genes were found to be disrupted in these

PCO blastocysts in addition to 12 altered protein biomarkers, demonstrating a link between
patient infertility phenotype and embryo development (Katz-Jaffe et al. , 2010).

The objective of the present study was to further explore the global transcriptome of human blastocysts from patients with differing infertility etiologies, specifically PCO, male factor, and unexplained infertility, to uncover novel biological pathways associated with their infertility that may influence downstream implantation outcomes. These findings will further our understanding of the impact of infertility diagnoses on the embryonic molecular signature at the time of implantation, and may lead to refined lab-based and clinical approaches for improving IVF outcomes.

165

#### 166 Materials and Methods

#### 167 Human blastocysts

168 Surplus, cryopreserved, anonymous, human blastocysts from IVF patients with specific 169 infertility diagnoses were donated with Institutional Review Board (IRB) consent. All embryos 170 were considered to be transferable quality with a grade of 3BB or better on day 5 of embryo 171 development (Gardner and Schoolcraft, 1999). Either slow freezing or vitrification protocols 172 were used to cryopreserve the blastocysts (Kuwayama, 2007, Veeck et al., 2004) which were 173 grouped according to a single distinct infertility diagnosis: n=50 young donor oocyte controls 174 with no male factor infertility; n=50 polycystic ovaries (PCO); n=50 male factor infertility (MF); 175 and n=50 unexplained infertility (UE). Every blastocyst used in this study came from a different 176 patient (female <38 years old, male <40 years old) and all patients had successful pregnancies 177 from the same IVF cohort as the blastocyst used for research. Patients diagnosed with PCO 178 had polycystic ovaries confirmed by ultrasound but did not have any endocrine or metabolic 179 abnormalities, as determined by androgen levels, fasting glucose and insulin levels, and oral 180 glucose tolerance testing. MF infertility patients were all diagnosed based on WHO guidelines 181 as oligoasthenoteratozoospermia with sperm concentration <15 million/ml, motility <32%, and

<4% normal morphology. UE infertility was defined following a negative fertility workup which</li>
included normal semen analysis, normal ovarian reserve testing, and normal uterine
assessment with no prior failures or missed abortions.

#### 185 Blastocyst thaw and RNA isolation

186 Blastocysts were either thawed or warmed using routine laboratory procedures, with an 187 overall 95% survival rate. Blastocysts in each distinct infertility diagnosis group were pooled 188 (n=25 per pool, 2 pools per group) and RNA was isolated using the PicoPure RNA Isolation Kit 189 (ThermoFisher Scientific, Grand Island NY) per the manufacturer's instructions with minor 190 modifications. Briefly, blastocysts were lysed in 10ul of Extraction Buffer before adding 1 191 volume of 70% ethanol and binding to a silica-based membrane. Samples were then washed 192 and on-column deoxyribonuclease treated (Qiagen, Valencia CA) prior to elution in 20ul and 193 storage at -80℃.

#### 194 Microarray hybridization

195 Isolated RNA from each group was reverse transcribed, amplified, and labeled using the 196 LowInput QuickAmp Labeling Kit (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara CA). Quantification and 197 quality of total RNA was performed using the High Sensitivity RNA ScreenTape on a 4200 198 TapeStation System (Agilent Technologies). Quantification and specific activity of labeled 199 cRNA was determined using the NanoDrop® ND-1000 spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher 200 Scientific). 600ng of cRNA was then applied to the SurePrint G3 Human Gene Expression 201 Microarray containing 50,599 biological features (Agilent Technologies) per the manufacturer's 202 instructions and hybridized in a rotating oven for 17 hours at 65°C. Arrays were washed and 203 then scanned using a DNA Microarray Scanner C (Agilent Technologies). Feature Extraction 204 software was utilized to extract gene expression data (Agilent Technologies).

#### 205 Real-time quantitative PCR Validation

206 RNA was reverse transcribed using the High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit
 207 (ThermoFisher Scientific). cDNA was diluted 1:5 in nuclease-free water and Real-time

quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) was performed for validation of specific differentially expressed
genes identified from the transcriptome analysis. Absolute expression was quantified relative to
a standard curve using slope and PCR efficiencies and normalized to a stable housekeeping
gene, GAPDH. Briefly, Power SYBR® Green PCR Master Mix (ThermoFisher Scientific) was
combined with 5uM primer mix and 5ul diluted cDNA for a total volume of 25ul. The reaction
was incubated at 95°C for 10 minutes, followed by 40 cycles of amplification at 95°C f or 15
seconds and 60°C for 1 minute with a final dissociation stage for melt curve analysis.

#### 215 Statistical analysis

216 Transcript analysis was performed using GeneSpring software (version 7, Agilent 217 Technologies), including principal component analysis (PCA), unsupervised hierarchical 218 clustering, one way ANOVA and unpaired t-test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction 219 (significance at P<0.05). qPCR analysis was performed with REST 2009 software (Qiagen) 220 which uses the correction for exact PCR efficiencies with mean crossing point deviations 221 between sample and control groups to determine an expression ratio that is tested for 222 significance by a Pair Wise Fixed Reallocation Randomization Test. Significance was defined 223 as P<0.05.

224 Ethical approval

All human participants were consented and this study was approved by an institutionalreview board.

227

228 Results

#### 229 The blastocyst transcriptome according to infertility diagnosis

The overall human blastocyst transcriptome contained 33,587 gene transcripts which included numerous splicing variants and isoforms, revealing 13,136 annotated genes. PCA and unsupervised hierarchical clustering distinguished each of the four blastocyst groups by their transcriptomes (Figure I). The most significant transcriptome variation was observed in blastocysts derived from infertile PCO patients. Compared to donor controls, significant
differences in transcription (>2 fold; P<0.05) were observed for 869 genes in PCO blastocysts,</li>
348 genes in MF blastocysts, and 473 genes in blastocysts from couples with unexplained
infertility (Figure II). Both upregulation and downregulation were observed in each group: PCO
= 647 increased, 222 decreased; MF = 143 increased, 205 decreased; UE = 305 increased, 168
decreased (Table I).

240 Functional annotation of PCO blastocysts was performed using DAVID

241 (https://david.ncifcrf.gov) which revealed significant differences in gene ontology including: cell 242 communication, differentiation and adhesion, reproduction, transcription factor activity, 243 regulation of apoptosis, receptor binding, signal transducer activity, and response to hormone 244 stimulus. Pathway analysis identified enriched biological processes with altered transcripts in 245 PCO vs. control blastocysts (P<0.05) including gap junction proteins and genes involved in p53 246 signaling, calcium signaling, TGF-beta signaling, histidine metabolism, and apoptosis (Table I). 247 Transcriptome analysis of MF blastocysts resulted in some similar gene ontology 248 differences in relation to PCO blastocysts that included: signal transduction, regulation of 249 apoptosis, cell adhesion, reproduction and receptor binding. Unique differences were also 250 observed for MF including: response to stress, regulation of growth, and protein dimerization 251 activity. Pathway analysis of MF vs. control blastocysts revealed enrichment in TGF-beta, ErbB, 252 B cell receptor and GnRH signaling (Table I).

Functional annotation of UE blastocysts also had similar outcomes to PCO blastocysts in signal transducer activity, receptor binding, cell differentiation, adhesion and morphogenesis, reproduction, and response to stimulus, among others. Unique differences for UE included: oxidoreductase activity, protein dimerization activity, and monooxygenase activity. Pathway analysis of UE vs. control blastocysts had some similarities (TGF-beta signaling and focal adhesion) compared to the other two groups but many more differences including affected pathways: Type I diabetes, antigen processing, leukocyte migration, autoimmune thyroid
disease, systemic lupus erythematosus, mTOR signaling, and adipocytokine signaling (Table I).

#### 261 Microarray Validation

262 RT- qPCR was used to validate the microarray data by investigating the expression 263 levels of genes involved in stress response, apoptosis, cell growth and adhesion, and 264 embryonic development. qPCR results confirmed a significantly higher expression of the stress 265 sensing protein activating transcription factor 3 (ATF3) in PCO blastocysts compared to donor 266 controls (P<0.05) and lower levels of anti-apoptotic oocyte-inherited gene (BCL2L10) (P<0.05) 267 and the heat shock proteins HSPA1A and HSPA1B (P<0.05; Figure III). Blastocysts from 268 patients with MF infertility displayed an increased expression of growth differentiating factor 15 269 (GDF15) (P<0.05) and the cell proliferation regulator, INHBA (P<0.05; Figure IV) as observed in 270 the microarray data. Additionally, reduced expression was validated in MF blastocysts for 271 fibroblast growth factor 9 (FGF9) (P<0.05), and left-right determination factors 1 and 2 (LEFTY1, 272 LEFTY2) (P<0.05; Figure IV). Three genes were also confirmed to have reduced expression in 273 blastocysts with UE infertility as observed in the microarray data: Adherens Junctions 274 Associated Protein 1 (AJAP1), cadherin 9 (CDH9), and Laminin Subunit Alpha 4 (LAMA4) (All 275 P<0.05; Figure V).

276

#### 277 Discussion

This study highlighted that the human blastocyst transcriptome is significantly impacted by the type of patient infertility diagnosis (PCO, MF, and UE). All three of the infertility diagnoses shared transcriptome alterations, with PCO blastocysts displaying the greatest transcriptome variation. An altered blastocyst transcriptome has the potential to impact overall developmental competence, contributing to the infertility observed in patients with these etiologies. 284 The expression of genes involved in stress response and apoptosis were significantly 285 different in PCO blastocysts compared to donor controls, suggesting a PCO environment has a 286 significant impact on the developing blastocyst's transcriptome, including alterations in stress 287 signaling pathways and the regulation of apoptosis. These findings are consistent with those of Wang et al, who reported differential expression of 650 transcripts in the ovaries of women with 288 289 PCOS compared to normal ovaries and found similar alterations in pathways involved in stress 290 response, apoptosis, and regulation of transcription (Wang et al., 2014). A higher expression of 291 ATF3 and lower expression of BCL2L10, HSPA1A and HSPA1B in PCO blastocysts was 292 observed in this study compared with donor controls. ATF3, a stress sensor, increases p53 293 protein levels and transcription of p53-responsive genes that result in either cell arrest and DNA 294 repair or apoptosis (Yan et al., 2005), thereby maintaining DNA integrity. In the developing 295 embryo, highly regulated apoptotic events are critical for embryo homeostasis and survival. The 296 BCL2 proteins are both anti- and pro-apoptotic; BCL2L10 is an anti-apoptotic oocyte-inherited 297 transcript and elimination of BCL2L10 accelerates oocyte death (Guillemin et al., 2009). 298 HSPA1A and B are involved in embryonic genome activation and decreased expression has 299 been observed in mammalian arrested embryos (Le Masson and Christians, 2011, Pan et al., 300 2014). Likewise, gene expression analyses of oocytes from PCOS women also revealed 301 reduced expression in these heat shock proteins (Wood et al., 2007). Decreased fertilization 302 rates after IVF, as well as a higher risk of miscarriage are associated with the PCO infertility 303 diagnosis. Altered expression levels of each of these genes in PCO may disrupt the normal 304 balance of apoptosis in the pre-implantation embryo, with downstream consequences for 305 implantation and developmental outcomes.

306 Blastocysts derived from MF infertility were significantly altered for TGF-beta and ErbB 307 signaling pathways which are crucial during cell growth and proliferation. GDF15 is a gene 308 belonging to the TGF-beta superfamily and plays a role in regulating inflammatory and apoptotic 309 pathways. The increased expression observed for GDF15 in MF blastocysts is associated with 310 numerous disease states including inflammation and oxidative stress. Likewise, INHBA, which encodes the same TGF-beta superfamily of proteins, was also found to have increased 311 312 expression in MF blastocysts. It is a negative regulator of gonadal stromal cell proliferation, 313 thus excess expression would lead to inappropriate decreases in cell proliferation which could 314 negatively impact implantation potential. Decreased gene expression in MF blastocysts was 315 observed for FGF9, LEFTY1, and LEFTY2. FGF9 is involved in many biological processes 316 including embryo development, cell growth, and morphogenesis. It has been found to be 317 required for stimulating Erk1/2 activation in differentiating spermatagonia (Tassinari et al., 318 2015). LEFTY proteins are critical in sustaining pluripotency and implicated in differentiation of 319 embryonic stem cells (Khalkhali-Ellis et al., 2016). Inactive LEFTY has been shown to result in 320 embryos that become entirely mesoderm and fail to develop (Hamada et al., 2002). Poor 321 sperm parameters in MF patients are correlated with fertilization failure and compromised 322 embryo quality and development. Decreases in the expression of these genes could severely 323 impact embryo developmental competence, which is crucial for implantation.

324 Important pathways including cell differentiation and morphogenesis, reproduction, and 325 response to stress were affected from blastocysts derived from patients with UE infertility. 326 These pathways affect embryo growth and development as well as cell adhesion and migration. 327 Decreased expression was observed for three genes involved in cell adhesion and migration: 328 AJAP1, CDH9, and LAMA4. AJAP1 has been observed to be decreased in various cancers and 329 interacts with  $\beta$ -catenin complexes that impact cell cycle function and apoptosis (Zeng et al., 330 2014). The decreased expression observed in UE blastocysts could have a negative impact on 331 the balance of apoptosis, possibly leading to inappropriate expression of genes that affect 332 cellular invasion. CDH9 belongs to a family of cell adhesion molecules that regulate 333 morphogenesis and are involved in intracellular signaling pathways (Halbleib and Nelson, 334 2006). These cadherins are responsible for cell-cell adhesion during morula compaction, in 335 addition to playing a role in tissue and organ development (Peyrieras et al., 1983). Decreased

336 expression would inhibit the ability of both early embryo development, as well as later fetal 337 development in utero. LAMA4 is a laminin that mediates the attachment, migration, and 338 organization of cells into organized tissues during embryonic development. Laminins are vital 339 for organogenesis and have critical functions in several tissues including skin, muscle, and 340 vasculature (Durbeej, 2010). As the etiology of UE infertility is more ambiguous, many adverse 341 outcomes are possible including poor embryo development and IVF failure. The decreased 342 expressed observed in UE blastocysts could have significant consequences to embryo 343 implantation and ongoing development.

344 The similarities between all infertility groups included transcriptome alterations in signal 345 tranducer activity, receptor binding, reproduction, cell adhesion, and response to stimulus. 346 These biological and molecular processes are all inter-related and crucial to embryo 347 development and implantation which are processes characterized by cells that proliferate, 348 migrate, and attach. Receptors are generally transmembrane protein molecules that bind to 349 signaling molecules in response to external stimuli. Once a receptor protein receives a signal, 350 a series of biochemical reactions is initiated which conveys those signals across a cell, 351 triggering changes in cell function or state, known as signal transduction. An example of this is 352 Hedgehog (Hh) proteins which are expressed during vertebrate development. Hh signaling has 353 been observed during embryonic development and has significance during the growth of 354 reproductive tissues including the gonad and uterus (Walterhouse et al., 2003). Cellular 355 adhesion, in which cells interact to attach to a surface, regulates signal transduction and is an 356 essential process for embryo implantation into the uterus lining. It is therefore not surprising 357 that all three infertility diagnoses shared blastocysts with transcriptome alterations in these 358 important biological and molecular processes.

The differences between each infertility group were more remarkable when studying their pathway analyses. Blastocysts from women with PCO were enriched for apoptosis. This is in concordance with data published showing that ovaries from women with PCO have

362 abnormal apoptotic activity and folliculogenesis (Cai et al., 2013). On the other hand, signaling pathways from blastocysts with MF infertility were largely involved in cancer processes. Lian et 363 364 al. also found that infertile men with maturation arrest had hyperactive germ cell proliferation as 365 a result of the inhibition of tumor suppressor IRF1 by its microRNA, miR-383 (Lian et al., 2010). 366 Interestingly, UE infertility was enriched for pathways involved in mTOR and adipocytokine 367 signaling, both of which are related to various disease states. This could explain some of the 368 difficulties in treating patients with unknown infertility as the cause of their reproductive 369 deficiencies could be the result of anything ranging from environmental to unknown disease risk 370 factors. For example, autoimmune disorders, such as lupus, have been shown to cause a 371 woman's immune system to reject an embryo, thereby preventing implantation into the uterus 372 (Mojarrad et al., 2013).

373

#### 374 Conclusions

375 This novel study suggests that underlying patient infertility diagnosis has an impact on 376 the blastocyst transcriptome, modifying genes that may affect developmental competence and 377 implantation outcomes. Ongoing research determining how transcription alterations are linked to 378 inferior pregnancy outcomes for PCO, MF, and UE patients is crucial to improving IVF success. 379 This is especially true for UE patients as a more defined infertility diagnosis could translate into 380 more targeted clinical management. Understanding how different infertility etiologies contribute 381 to embryo viability may also lead to the development of new laboratory and clinical therapies. 382 An example of this type of clinical advancement is the endometrial receptivity array which 383 identifies endometrial receptivity for patients with repeated implantation failure (Ruiz-Alonso et 384 al., 2013). Further studies could lead to similar advancements including individualized embryo 385 culture systems and custom stimulation and frozen embryo transfer protocols, thereby 386 improving outcomes for these patients.

388

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392

#### 393 Authors' Roles

394 BRM performed all microarray and RT-qPCR experiments and analysis and took the

lead in preparing the manuscript. JCP collected all blastocyst samples for all experiments.

396 DKG and WBS provided critical review of the manuscript. MKJ designed and oversaw the

397 completion of the study. All authors participated in the editing of the manuscript.

398

#### 399 Conflict of Interest and Funding

400 No conflict of interest or outside funding was provided.

401

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## **Table I. Significantly altered transcripts and pathways associated with specific infertility**

## 516 diagnoses

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Infertility Diagnosis	# ↑ Genes (P<0.05; >2-fold)	#↓Genes (P<0.05; >2-fold)	Enriched Pathways (P<0.05; >2-fold)
РСО	647	222	p53 signaling, TGF-beta signaling, apoptosis, histidine metabolism
MF	143	205	TGF-beta signaling, ErbB signaling, GnRH signaling, B cell receptor signaling
UE	305	168	mTOR signaling, autoimmune thyroid disease, systemic lupus erythematosus, Type I diabetes, and adipocytokine signaling

**Figure 1.** Differential transcriptome profiles based on infertility diagnosis. Human blastocyst transcriptomes from unexplained infertility (UE) (lanes 1 and 2), polycystic ovaries (PCO) (lanes 3 and 4), male factor (MF) (lanes 5 and 6) and control (lanes 7 and 8). Unsupervised hierarchical clustering clearly separated the transcriptomes of the four groups, with the most significant variation in gene expression observed for the PCO group.



**Figure 2.** Venn diagram depicting gene overlap of differentially expressed transcripts between the infertility diagnoses groups. P < 0.05; >2-fold; one-way ANOVA and unpaired t-test with Benjamini– Hochberg correction. N = 1385 genes.



**Figure 3.** Altered expression of genes involved in apoptosis and stress response in PCO blastocysts. Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed to validate expression levels of activating transcription factor 3 (ATF3), BCL2 like 10 (BCL2L10) and heat shock protein family A members 1A and 1B (HSPA1A and HSPA1B) in donor control and PCO blastocysts with peptidylprolyl isomerase A (PPIA) transcription as the constant internal reference gene. A significant increase in ATF3 expression was observed, while BCL2L10, HSPA1A and HSPA1B displayed significantly lower expression in PCO blastocysts, compared to donor controls; \*P < 0.05; pair-wise fixed reallocation randomization test.



**Figure 4.** Altered expression of genes involved in cell growth and differentiation in MF blastocysts. qPCR was performed to validate expression levels of growth differentiation factor 15 (GDF15), inhibin beta A subunit (INHBA), fibroblast growth factor 9 (FGF9) and leftright determination factors 1 and 2 (LEFTY1 and LEFTY2) in donor control and MF blastocysts with GAPDH transcription as the constant internal reference gene. (A) Expression of FGF9, LEFTY1 and LEFTY2 was significantly lower and (B) GDF15 and INHBA significantly higher in MF blastocysts compared to donor controls; \*P < 0.05; pair-wise fixed reallocation randomization test.



A)





**Figure 5.** Altered expression of genes involved in cell adhesion and migration in UE blastocysts. qPCR was performed to validate expression levels of adherens junctions associated protein 1 (AJAP1), cadherin 9 (CDH9) and laminin subunit alpha 4 (LAMA4) in donor control and UE blastocysts with GAPDH transcription as the constant internal reference gene. All three genes were significantly decreased in expression in UE blastocysts compared to donor controls; \*P < 0.05; pairwise fixed reallocation randomization test.



## Table 1. Significantly altered transcripts and pathways associated with specific infertility

#### diagnoses

Infertility Diagnosis	#	#	Enriched Pathways (P<0.05; >2-fold)
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PCO, polycystic ovaries; MF, male factor infertility; UE, unexplained infertility; TGF, transforming growth factor; ErbB, epidermal growth factor; mTOR, mechanistic target of rapamycin.

Statistical method: one-way ANOVA and unpaired t-test with Benjamini–Hochberg correction.